DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 276 154 EA 019 007

AUTHOR Land, Arthur J.
TITLE Education Quality and Teacher Salary.
PUB DATE 9 Nov 86
NOTE 30p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Southern Regional Council for Educational Administration (Atlanta, GA, November 9-11, 1986).
PUB TYPE Viewpoints (120) -- Speeches/Conference Papers (150)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Administrator Responsibility; Educational Policy; Educational Quality; Educational Theories; Elementary Secondary Education; Employment Practices; Futures (of Society); Instructional Improvement; Merit Pay; Performance Factors; Teacher Administrator Relationship; *Teacher Attitudes; *Teacher Effectiveness; Teacher Evaluation; Teacher Improvement; *Teacher Motivation; *Teacher Recruitment; *Teacher Salaries; *Work Attitudes
IDENTIFIERS Teacher Incentives

ABSTRACT

In view of the emphasis on money as a motivator mentioned in reports examining instructional reform, teacher motivation, this paper focuses on the efficacy of using salary to attract quality teacher candidates. Although standardized testing and internship programs often supplement inadequate certification requirements, critics question the relationship of testing to classroom effectiveness and to higher quality applicants. Jacob W. Getzel's theory of social behavior, as applied by Morphet et al., suggests that effective school leadership extends opportunities to teachers to meet both personal and school objectives. Maslow's theory of motivation provides an avenue for understanding individual needs as motivators of behavior. Today, according to Yankelovich, the attitude of younger employees toward their work and workplace is that the present incentive system is so unappealing that they are no longer motivated to work hard. A derived implication is an administrative style that is supportive of a teacher's inner locus of control. The Coleman report discovered that local affluence is the basis for setting teacher salaries--not teacher quality. While money incentives are necessary, they are insufficient alone, for knowledge about what motivates teacher performance is necessary. The teacher's experience of the school environment has a great impact on quality, which involves administrator quality. Morphet and others (1982) perceive the traditional behavior of administrators as one of the major stumbling blocks to curriculum improvement. Included are 33 references. (CJH)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED276154

...UCATION
...nd Improvement
...INFORMATION
...reproduced as
...or organization
...ade to improve
...ted in this docu
...present official

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Arthur J. Sand

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

...TY AND TEACHER SALARY

... Ed.D.

...a

...November 9, 1986

Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Southern Regional Council for Educational Administration (Atlanta, GA, November 9-11, 1986).

EA 019 007

Teacher Salary

Education Quality and ~~Money~~ ©
by Arthur J. Land, Ed.D.
Columbus College, Columbus, Georgia
November 8, 1986

Introduction

In view of the focus in educational administration circles upon participatory management approaches and others reminiscent of the "Quality Control Circles" found in the successful Japanese industrial establishment, it was somewhat surprising to note the traditional emphasis upon money as a motivator in various reports that have as their objective the improvement of the quality of public education. For example, Monk and Jacobson (1985) note that several recent reports on the quality and status of American education make explicit recommendations for substantial changes in teaching compensation methods. (Note: Such reports include, for example, Boyer (1983), Education Commission of the States (1983), Goodlad (1983), National Commission on Excellence in Education (1983), National Science Board Commission on Precollege Education in Mathematics (1983), U.S. House of Representatives Committee on Education and Labor (1983), and Twentieth Century Fund (1983).)

This paper will focus primarily upon the efficacy of using salary as the attractor for hopefully high quality teacher candidates. When it comes to defining potential excellence in prospective teachers with a view toward careful screening and selection of those candidates who are most likely to become excellent teachers, we typically do not find methods or

EA 019 007

strategies that work. This appears to be a critical deficiency, since the validity of the criteria by which we are to select the best teachers-to-be from among those who are attracted to teaching -- for whatever reasons (some of these reasons will be examined closely at a later point in this paper) -- will determine the ultimate success of our efforts to increase excellence in teaching by way of improving the quality of new teachers. For example, there is general reliance on achievement tests to serve this quality-discrimination function, and this is of questionable validity.

There is ample cause to suspect that such testing is inadequate to accomplish the intended purpose. Lines (1985) in considering the widespread use of the NTE as a screening device for prospective teachers, states that "[Tests] are ... one dimensional -- measuring only knowledge and not other characteristics that make for an effective teacher, such as compassion, love of children, energy, wisdom, dedication, and similar qualities" (p.618). And, "The NTE measures the minimum amount of academic knowledge an individual should possess upon entering the teaching profession ..." (p.619).

Albert Shanker (1984), who is and has been for many years the president of the American Federation of Teachers, AFL-CIO, is well qualified by virtue of his vast experience with teachers' concerns about employment and its conditions, as well as the current impact upon teachers of the current reform movement, to comment on this issue. He writes that for prospective teachers

"[p]assing a subject-matter test is a critical first step. While it is true that passing such a test is no guarantee that the candidate will be a good teacher, any candidate who fails this test <u>is</u> guaranteed to be a poor teacher" (p.16). Thus, passing a screening test is seen as a necessary, but not alone a sufficient, condition for quality teaching.

In short, there is a great deal of pressure today to ensure teacher competency, but there appears to be no adequate method to measure potential competency. Ellis (1984) points out that since state certification requirements do not appear to adequately equate with competency, two basic means have been proposed to achieve this objective, namely, standardized testing combined with some type of internship or probationary teaching program. He reiterates that critics of standardized testing approaches argue that knowledge tests have no important relationship to classroom effectiveness, while the critics also question whether testing will lead to higher quality applicants for teaching positions. He indicates that if such tests are used, they should be validated against performance requirements.

The problem of determining what criteria, or standards, by which to judge competency or quality is further complicated by the necessity to decide at what level of performance the standard should be set for marking quality in performance. Berk (1986), as the result of a review of research in this area, found that over 35 different methods have been proposed for setting standards and estimating performance errors. He went on to write

that, "The process of setting performance standards is open to constant criticism ... and remains controversial to discuss, difficult to execute, and almost impossible to defend. ... [yet] important decisions about individuals are made based on these standards" (p.137).

Regarding certification tests for the evaluation of teachers and others, Berk advises that minimum competency testing programs should be sensitive to all populations having important vested interests in the process. He states that, "... considering the political arena ... some form of judgmental analysis [in setting performance standards] is essential. An empirically based method alone would be indefensible. ... [T]he credibility of a method seems to hinge, for the most part, on the participating of representative parties in the process and also on a method's conceptual and computational simplicity. In other words, a method that is complicated or statistically sophisticated may impress psychometricians, but not lay people" (pp.165-166).

Scholarly work such as that of Berk may be taken as a confident indicator that progress can be expected to be made in developing practical and effective means for setting criterion-referenced performance standards in the measurement of levels of proficiency, or excellence.

Theoretical Analysis of Personal Motivation and Teaching Performance

Before going on to consider the relative merits and probable

effects of some of the various money incentives that are either in use or proposed to improve quality in teaching, it will be most helpful to review some of the theories and findings that relate to any serious consideration of teacher performance, involvement, and satisfaction with the employment situation, since these appear to relate to teaching quality. In short, we will examine motivation, i.e., why teachers behave as they do. This will enable us to gain insight into how school goals and teacher objectives may be integrated into a unified and effective cooperative effort. It will be seen that effectiveness depends not only upon the teacher, but also upon the school administrator. Then we will examine how money incentives are likely to enhance the attractiveness of teaching to teaching candidates of high potential.

Morphet, et al (1982) referred to Jacob W. Getzels' theory of social behavior that explains observed behavior of a member of an organization, such as a teacher in a school, as being a function of the congruence of the member's goals and those of the organization (p.50). The behavior of the teacher reflects the individual's attempts to meet personal needs as well as school expectations. It may be hypothesized that teacher effectiveness will be greatest where teacher-school objectives are congruent, since the teacher's behavior will be directed toward simultaneously achieving those mutual ends. Getzels' theory helps to explain why, in the studies of effective schools, it was found that an important characteristic of effective principals is

their ability to clearly communicate the goals and objectives of the school to all: teachers, staff, students and community. By having a clear perception of what the organization wants to achieve and expects from all members, each member is provided the opportunity to integrate efforts to meet personal and school objectives simultaneously, with minimal ambiguity concerning what one is expected to accomplish in the workplace.

Abraham Maslow's theory of motivation (cited in Biehler & Snowman, 1986) is one that helps to place individual behavior into manageable perspective, and provides an avenue for understanding the importance of an individual's personal needs as motivators of behavior (p.474-478). For example, it may be hypothesized that, to the extent that the school is perceived as a place in which one's needs are satisfied, the school environment would be experienced as a positive, satisfying place to be -- a place to look forward to being in, rather than a place in which to spend as little time and effort as possible. It should be noted that the basic needs that we all must satisfy, as theorized by Maslow, can only be met through interactions with other people. As such, they may be thought of as "dependency" needs (Maslow terms them "deficit" needs). The managed school environment offers a multitude of rich opportunities for meeting these needs by perceptive administrators. It should be noted, however, that money may be perceived as having high or low need-meeting significance for a teacher, depending upon the need(s) to which it is related by the teacher. Thus, for a teacher, money

incentives may have an entirely different meaning than one based upon the traditional industrial, bureaucratic assumption that "people perform in order to be paid off in dollars." We must be very cautious in attributing teacher behavior to a desire for material gains, such as money incentives. The flavor of the "cult of efficiency" that dominates management in the private sector may be highly inappropriate as it relates to the school setting and teacher motivation.

For example, Little (1984) asked teachers what they found rewarding in their work, and the overwhelming response was "making a difference to students." And, "... [t]eachers with a strong sense of efficacy -- that is, teachers who believe in their ability to reach most or all of their students -- have been found to be more satisfied with their career choice, more enthusiastic about the importance of teaching, and more inclined to 'work hard' than teachers who are less certain of their influence on students" (p.72). Would a means for measuring "personal efficacy" help to select prospectively excellent teachers? Is this a characteristic teachers bring with them, or is it developed as a result of having problem control in their school setting? These are questions that research could be fruitful in answering. In regard to utilizing the above findings to improve current teacher performance, Little suggests that increasing a teacher's sense of personal efficacy by acknowledging and valuing the individual's accomplishments in achieving student educational gains would strongly relate to

satisfaction of the "service motive" that is felt to be so important to many teachers. On the other hand, Little points out that "... it is certainly naive or foolish to believe that pay is not a salient factor in the ability of teaching to compete with other professions for the most able and energetic candidates" (p.77).

An important theoretical construct that will help us to predict the likely response of prospective teachers to money incentives as a means for enhancing quality is that proposed by Amitai Etzioni and cited in Morphet, et al (1982). Etzioni's theory of worker compliance response sees the type of response being dependent upon the type of power used by management. The 3 kinds of power posited are: Coercive (use of force, which would be appropriate where member compliance must be achieved, such as in a prison); Remunerative (material rewards, such as money in a free enterprise, profit-oriented business); and Normative (in which rewards such as social acceptance, esteem, and approval are associated with conforming to social norms and values, as in a school). The likely (predicted) types of compliance involvement associated with each of these types of power, respectively, would be alienative, calculative, and moral involvement by the employee in the organization (p.51). Using this construct, it seems likely that the use of money incentives will result in involvement of teachers that will be mostly calculative in nature, with development of a "what's in it for me" attitude toward tasks to be performed. This theoretical approach to

evaluating the likely effects of money incentives adds the perspective that we must keep in mind the kind of institution the school represents (i.e., it is devoted to achieving cultural goals through reliance upon social norms and values), and the appropriate type of power to be used in the school to gain compliance of its members (Normative). Thus, it is theorized that power type must be consistent with the school's overriding purpose, i.e., Normative. Perhaps the use of inappropriate power sources (which may include coercive and remunerative power, if not carefully and selectively used) in the school could have the unintended and adverse effect of altering perceptions of the basic kind of institution that the school should be.

Moreover, the use of normative influence in the school to gain compliance of teachers that is moral in kind is related to involvement that can reach a much deeper and personally meaningful level than one might expect using either remunerative or coercive power as bases for gaining compliance. In other words, the effect would be to humanize the school as a workplace.

Hall and Thomas (1986) have discussed the school and teaching as they relate to the "human condition" -- the idea that quality, productivity, achievement, satisfaction, recognition, and motivation are all related to the fact that teaching is experienced and carried out in terms of its meaningfulness as a human condition. It appears to Hall and Thomas that if teaching is to be a widely attractive profession, to both prospective and veteran teachers, there is much more to be done than increase

salaries and other remunerative rewards. For example, there must be developed in the teaching workplace the same conditions found and enjoyed in the other professions. Some of these conditions include responsible sharing in appropriate decision-making, freedom of personal time, collegial relationships with peers, personally meaningful rewards for achievement in teaching, status in the organization, and public esteem. Hall and Thomas note that the literature on effective schools demonstrates that those schools encourage and support not only empirically measurable high student achievement, but also high personal satisfaction in being productive and providing quality experiences for students (pp.400-402).

Times change and people change. Evidence that current teachers' attitudes toward their work and workplace are very different from those of earlier generations comes from such sources as David Yankelovitch (1978), the pollster, cited in Vander Zanden (1985). Yankelovitch notes a profound shift in attitudes of the young today as he states: "A new breed of Americans, born out of the social movement of the 60s and grown into a majority in the 70s, holds a set of values and beliefs so markedly different from the traditional outlook that they promise to transform the character of work in America in the 80s. ... Today millions who hold paid jobs find the present incentive system so unappealing that they are no longer motivated to work hard" (p.46).

Vander Zanden goes on to cite key features of the behavior

of people with the "new values" as being "... a willingness to question authority, a weakening of materialist standards, and a demand that work be fulfilling and enriching. These values, it is claimed, contradict those of an industrial order founded on deference to authority and responsiveness to such traditional rewards as income and promotion" (p.514).

A study by Kottkamp, et al (1986), presents an interesting and current look at teachers' attitudes in the Dade County, Florida school system and indicates that the "new values" noted by Yankelovitch are operative today. The study utilized as baseline comparative data those obtained by Dan Lortie (1975) and reported in his book, Schoolteacher. To review, Lortie distinguished between 3 categories of career and work-related rewards. They are: (1) Extrinsic Rewards that include, for example, salary earned, respect of others, and power to influence others; (2) Ancillary Rewards that include, for example, relative security of income and position, the work schedule (especially free Summer time), the special suitability of teaching for the teacher, and other stable "givens" in the workplace; and (3) Intrinsic Rewards that include, for example, "reaching" a student or a group of students and knowing that they have learned, and the chance to associate and develop relationships with young people.

The 1984 survey by Kottkamp, et al, revealed that among the 3 categories, the vast majority (70.2%) of the respondents felt that Intrinsic Rewards are most important, while 18.4% and 11.3%

felt that Ancillary and Extrinsic Rewards, respectively, were most important to them. Furthermore, from among the 3 Extrinsic Rewards within that category from which respondents could choose as being the most satisfying, salary was in last place (third), being chosen as most important by only 14.2%, while 31.7% found "opportunity to wield some influence" most satisfying, and 26.3% specifying "respect received from others" as most satisfying. It is especially noteworthy that of all respondents, 27.8% indicated that they received no satisfaction at all from Extrinsic Rewards!

Within the Intrinsic Rewards category, the most satisfying experience selected was the times the teacher knew a student or group of students was "reached" and learned. This reward was clearly most important to the majority of teachers in this category, being selected by 86.7% of the respondents. (pp.564-565).

We would do well to investigate deeply the underlying drives and goals that attract teachers, since these may be critical to teacher quality. Their priorities of rewards in the workplace could provide potentially highly fruitful links for management in planning a teacher support and development system for enhancement of teaching quality.

It should not be concluded, however, that a state of "satisfaction" in all teachers is a desirable objective, for there are different types of satisfaction -- some of which may be related to complacence and some that may have motivating effects. Corzo and Yanouzas (1967), in reference to a study of white

collar workers, point out that "... [S]atisfaction ... is determined by both what a worker wants or aspires to obtain from a situation, and what he already has obtained from it, and though satisfaction may determine an individual's willingness to participate in an organization [i.e., his attraction to it], it does not determine directly his level of productivity" (p.487). This is at variance with the commonly held view that a satisfied worker is a more productive worker. We see satisfaction as a feeling derived from the overall personal need-meeting capability of the workplace. This type of satisfaction is necessary in order to attract and retain interest in the employment environment. However, motivation to be <u>productive</u>, we believe, results from a personal <u>dissatisfaction</u> with the status quo over which the teacher feels a strong degree of control as well as a strong commitment to correct or change. From this, a derived implication is that the school administrator might well devote serious effort to ensuring that not only are the teacher's personal needs met, consistent with the school's goals, but also that the teacher be provided timely opportunity to use personal abilities, skills and experience to solve problems and make improvements on one's own. This would require an administrative style that is distinctly participative and collegial in nature, and is supportive of development of an inner locus of control on the part of the teacher. To coin a phrase, it seems quite likely that productive teachers may well be in a state of "happy dissatisfaction!"

Salary as an Attraction to Teaching

While a competitive salary is undoubtedly necessary to attract and retain able professionals, it must be recognized that salary alone cannot ensure high quality teaching performance, for which the teacher is paid. There must also be, it seems to us, a strong resolve to reform the ways schools are managed in order to create the kind of environment conducive to quality teaching. This would convert schools from the inflexible, stultifying, bureaucratic organizations that many of them are perceived to be by teachers who "burn out", into dynamically responsive worlds for living and learning -- places in which the human plasma of teachers and students can be energized and resourced without unnecessary bonds and restraints of policies and practices that no longer serve growth and achievement, but which in fact may mortally hinder these processes. For example, why do we commonly have student dropout rates of 30% and more? If the school is supposed to be a place for development of the young into responsible and effective adults, how can we claim success if we lose upwards of a third of them after entry into high school and before they graduate? The need for change is real and immediate.

While truly competitive compensation should at least help ensure input of the teacher potential to accomplish our enormously ambitious goals, what happens to that potential after it is attracted to the school? That will depend primarily upon the opportunities (or lack of them) for personal-professional

growth. What may be most needed is enlightened, unshackled, and inspired leadership to utilize what we have learned about actualizing the motivation of people to achieve. In short, attraction, retention and development of quality teachers could well depend upon the quality of school leadership. This is a theme to which we will return.

There is a common perception that teaching quality is not as high as it should be, because it is said that teachers are drawn from the lower ability levels among the college graduate population. For example, Shanker (1984) states that "SAT scores of students preparing to teach have dropped considerably faster than those of the general college population. We are not attracting the best and brightest of college graduates, and we are drawing too many students from the bottoms of their classes" (p.15). Schlechty and Vance (1982) report that "... as things now stand, teaching does not attract recruits from among the more academically able segment of the population" (p.5), and "... such [an image] must also discourage potential recruits from pursuing a career in which they are likely to be stigmatized as being among the <u>least able</u> of all college graduates" (p.6). These authors cite evidence that teachers identified as "outstanding" have significantly higher verbal abilities than those not considered to be outstanding. They argue for recruitment of high verbal ability applicants, and express the view that the ability to recruit academically able teachers and/or select teachers from among the academically able depends in large measure upon the

ability of the local school to provide working environments and career opportunities that are attractive to the academically able in the first place. There is a real need for research to define how college graduates view education as a career and why, in order for us to respond to "image" problems in our recruitment efforts.

Schlechty and Vance also reported in 1982 that the quantity problem of teacher supply is solved, and that the quality problem is the present one to solve. However, their view concerning the adequacy of teacher candidate supply may well be shortsighted and already outdated today, in view of an analysis by Johnson (1986). He asserts "... the country is about to enter an acute teacher shortage. Historically, it is known that the end of the baby boom meant few new teachers were hired in the seventies. In fact, some were dismissed. As a result, the average age of teachers rose and many are currently near retirement. Children of the baby boomers are now entering school so a steep increase in the annual rate new teachers must be hired is anticipated. In point of fact, in 1981 one hundred fifteen thousand new teachers were needed and by 1992 two hundred fifteen thousand new teachers will be needed. ... after fifteen years of a teacher surplus, in 1985, jobs and job seekers were roughly in balance. For at least the next fifteen years there will be many more [teacher] jobs than applicants. In addition, a large number of school districts across the United States face a situation in which half of their teachers will have to be replaced because of retirements within

the next four to five years" (p.6). We have quoted Johnson at length in order to support the apparent correctness of his claim that we are on the verge of an acute teacher shortage, and we further suggest that the impending shortage will greatly exacerbate the problem of securing high quality teacher candidates for employment. (Schlechty and Vance (1982) include in their recommendations that, in order to improve teacher competence, local school districts take over responsibility for teaching new teachers how to teach, while schools of education would focus on developing research and researchers of the teaching and instructional processes. The logical connection between such a course of action and improving teaching quality is not apparent to us.)

There is great emphasis today on increasing starting salaries for teachers as a means for attracting more able and presumably high-quality potential teacher candidates. The rationale is stated in Bulletin No. 4250, Wisconsin State Department of Public Instruction (1984). "... that entry level salaries of teachers be increased to make them comparable to other professions requiring similar levels of academic preparation (p.iii). ... Although salary is not the only factor to attract people to consider a career in teaching, it is not unimportant. ... We wish ... to underline the importance of beginning salaries as a factor in persuading able men and women to consider a career in teaching" (p.5).

Johns, et al (1983) demonstrates the relative loss of

earning power experienced by teachers in the last decade, and longer. An NEA Research Memo (1983) indicates that the average salary of a public school teacher with a bachelor's degree in 1980-81 was $15,128, and that was much lower than the 1980 mean earnings of all full-time workers having four years of college, with their mean salary at $22,832. This represents a negative annual differential in teachers' salaries of over $7,700. Possible evidence that this situation might represent a source of low morale is contained in the response of 36% of teachers surveyed by the NEA, as reported in their 1983 Research Memo, who indicated that they would probably not become teachers again if they could start over in their college days. That is more than one-third of the then practicing teachers.

Seifert (1982) discusses a number of characteristics of teacher recruits he feels is related to quality in small schools. And how do we attract these quality candidates? Seifert suggests that the easiest and most efficient strategy for teacher recruitment is to make salaries competitive and provide extra pay for extra work. Unfortunately, no evidence is presented to support the effectiveness of this approach for attracting quality teachers.

One might suppose that selecting prospective teachers from one or another teacher preparation school would enhance the probability of future teaching quality. Such is not the case, according to Murnane (1983), who states that, "... to my knowledge, no study has found undergraduate major or the choice

of a particular teacher training institution ... to be significantly related to teaching effectiveness" (p.565).

The problem of attracting "quality" candidates raises the issue of what is a quality teacher? A study by Guthrie, et al (1968) referred to quality characteristics by which employed teacher quality could be judged, including such factors as length of service, type of credential (permanent vs. partially fulfilled, etc.), and others, all of which are justified on the basis of their common use by superintendents in selecting teachers for employment (p.C-6). As is so often true, empirical evidence supporting the validity of the quality indicators used in practice was not presented in that study, and, we suspect, was probably totally absent.

It occurred to us that something useful might be gained by making at least a cursory examination of efforts undertaken in other countries to deal with the teacher recruiting problem. Studies conducted by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (1968) provided the following relevant information:

- In Austria, one method that was reportedly successful in overcoming a teacher shortage was to require by law teaching up to 7 hours per week over the normal load for which the teacher receives an additional 6% of the salary for each overload hour taught. This is "premium" pay in that one hour of the normal load is equivalent to 4 to 5.5%

of the normal salary, depending upon grade level taught. This method has proven very effective, with actual overloads ranging from one to no more than three hours for those affected (p.69-70). Recruitment methods found to be effective are: offering generous scholarships to qualified teacher candidates, and conducting advertising campaigns to increase the attractiveness of the profession among the public.

- In Sweden, funds were granted to the National Board of Education for teacher recruitment campaigns. Up-to-date advertising methods were employed utilizing a special ad agency employed for the purpose. Reportedly, important aspects of the campaigns were "propaganda meetings at universities, a series of ads to inform the public and students about teaching as a profession and to increase interest in and appreciation of the profession, and pamphlets and filmstrips for upper secondary level students" (p.62).

The use of planned public information efforts, as noted above, could have a substantial impact on the valuing of teaching and teachers by the public. It seems quite rare that we see in this country any public statement that implies the true value to our society of teachers as human beings and professionals. Such an organized effort might pay off in rich dividends in terms of

attracting service-oriented, able youth, and in increasing public esteem for teachers.

There is one study reported in the literature that attempts to establish an empirically demonstrable relationship between teacher salaries and quality criteria. The study was reported by Owen (1971) and utilized data from the national study of elementary schools entitled Equality of Educational Opportunity (popularly known as the Coleman Report). The general conclusion of Owen's study was that "... teacher salaries were found to be determined by the level of per capita income in the employing system, and by the salaries paid in competing occupations" (p.19). Competing occupations were defined as including "managers, officials and proprietors" (p.14). Thus, local affluence seems to be the basis for setting teacher salaries -- not teacher quality.

It should be fairly obvious that little appears to have been done to successfully establish valid criteria for estimating teacher qualities, attributes, or characteristics that are actually predictive of classroom effectiveness. Yet many methods have been and are being used to purportedly accomplish this purpose. Toward improvement of the current situation, Hyman (1984) implores us to "... support performance tests as a requirement for certification of all teachers who teach in our schools ... we should support tests that are validated [italics ours] against actual job performance -- tests which evaluate the actual knowledge, skills and professional ethics which produce

educational and social benefits" (p.18).

Performance measures do represent the trend in certification testing. Now what is needed is the validation of the measures suggested by Hyman.

As it was succinctly stated by the Forum of Educational Leaders, one of the first groups of educators to respond to the cries for educational reform as reported by Dees (1984), "... the ultimate test for a teacher comes in the classroom under ... supervision and inspection ..." (p.24).

Summing Up

We believe that money incentives are necessary (especially as attractors for potentially capable teachers) for the improvement of teacher quality, but they are not sufficient alone. It is necessary to bring into play available knowledge about what motivates teachers to perform or not perform, and to humanize the schools as places in which students and teachers are able to meet important personal needs and school objectives in their mutual quest for growth and development. These human conditions are attainable, but only through the impetus of leadership which itself is of high quality.

It seems reasonable to accept the view that surely teacher salaries should be brought up to, and maintained at, competitive levels with other professions if teaching is to become attractive to, and if we are to have an opportunity to select from, prospective teachers having high potential for effectiveness.

Furthermore, an equitable gauge to measure competitiveness of salaries should be utilized, such as a realistic cost-of-living index, or an index of salaries paid comparably qualified college graduates.

Yes, we believe that money incentives can attract and help retain good teachers. However, more money alone will not ensure more quality. That will primarily result from use of valid selection criteria for prospective teachers, and valid performance measures that distinguish teachers who influence students' educational growth. Perhaps even more important is how the teacher experiences the school environment after employment -- as a place for living, growing and dynamically teaching, or, alternatively, as a place that is dead, dull and destructive -- that has the greater impact on teaching quality. And that is most likely a function of administrator quality. In an analysis of efforts to improve the school curriculum, Morphet, et al, state that "... in report after report ... researchers look upon the traditional behavior of administrators as one of the greatest stumbling blocks to the improvement of curriculum. In a sense, 'the enemy is us' ..." (p.333).

End

References

Berk, Ronald A. A consumer's guide to setting performance standards on criterion-referenced tests. Review of Educational Research, v.56, no.1 (Spring, 1986).

Biehler, Robert F., and Snowman, Jack. Psychology Applied to Teaching, 5th ed. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. 1986.

Blau, M., and Layard, R. "Introduction" to Zabalza, Antonini, Turnbull, Phillip, William, Gareth, and Bowman, Mary Jane. The Economics of Teacher Supply. Cambridge University Press. 1979.

Boyer, E. High School: A Report on Secondary Education in America. New York: Harper and Rowe. 1983.

Corzo, Rocco, Jr. and Yanouzos, John N. Formal Organization: A Systems Approach. Homewood, IL: Richard D. Irwin, Inc. and The Dorsey Press 1967.

Dees, Anne. Coming together through diversity. The School Administrator, v.41, no.1, (January, 1984), pp. 22-24.

Education Commission of the States, Task Force on Education for Economic Growth. Action for Excellence: A Comprehensive Plan to Improve Our Nation's Schools. Denver, CO: Author. 1983.

Ellis, Thomas I. Teacher Competency: What Administrators Can Do. Eugene, OR: ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management (1984). 3 p.

Goodlad, J. L. A Place Called School: Prospects for the Future. New York: McGraw-Hill. 1983.

Guthrie, James et al. Geographic Distribution of Teaching Talent in California. Consultants' Report Prepared for the State Committee on Education. Berkeley, CA: California State Committee on Education. January, 1968.

Hall, J. Floyd, and Thomas, M. Donald. State leadership: A matter of madness or goodness. The Clearing House, v.59, No.9 (May, 1986), pp.400-402

Hyman, Ronald T. Testing for teacher competence: The logic, the law, and the implications. Journal of Teacher Education, v.35, no.2 (March-April, 1984), pp. 14-18.

Johns, Roe L., Morphet, Edgar L., and Alexander, Kern. The Economics and Financing of Education, 4th ed. Englewood Cliffs, NJ. 1983.

Johnson, Joseph C., II. A Proposal for the Consideration of the Establishment of a Classroom Enquirers' Program. Columbus, GA: School of Education, Columbus College. Unpublished paper. 1986. Quoted with permission.

Kottkamp, Robert B., Provenzo, Robert F., Jr., and Cohn, Marilyn M. Stability and change in a profession: Two decades of teacher attitudes, 1964-1984. Phi Delta Kappan, v.67, no.8 (April, 1986).

Lines, Patricia M. Testing the teacher: Are there legal pitfalls? Phi Delta Kappan, v.66, no.9. (May, 1985).

Little, Judith Warren. Organizing for quality: Good teaching and good teachers. Journal of Children in Contemporary Society, v.16, nos.3-4 (Spring-Summer, 1984), pp.71-84.

Lortie, Dan C. Schoolteacher: A sociological Study. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. 1975.

Monk, David H., and Jacobson, Stephen L. Reforming teacher compensation. Education and Urban Society, v.17, no.2 (February, 1985), pp.223-236.

Morphet, Edgar L., Johns, Roe L. and Reller, Theodore L. Educational Organization and Administration, 4th ed. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1982.

Murnane, Richard J. Understanding the sources of teaching competencies: Choices, skills, and the limits of training. Response to Donna Kerr. Teachers College Record, v.84, no.3 (Spring, 1983), pp.564-569.

National Commission on Excellence in Education. A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform. Washington, D.C: Government Printing Office. 1983.

National Science Board Commission on Precollege Education in Mathematics. Educating Americans for the 21st Century. Washington, D.C: National Science Foundation. 1983.

Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development. Directorate for Scientific Affairs. Paris, France (1968). Training, Recruitment and Utilization of Teachers in Primary and Secondary Education. Country Case Studies: Austria, Sweden and Yugoslavia.

Owen, John D. The Determination of Teacher Salary and Quality: An Economic Analysis. Report No. 117, The Center for Social Organization of Schools. Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, MD. October, 1971.

Schlechty, Phillip C., and Vance, Victor A. Recruitment, Selection and Retention: The Shape of the Teaching Force. Washing, D.C: National Institute of Education (February, 1982).

Shanker, Albert. Educational reform: The teaching-force problem. National Forum: Phi Kappa Phi Journal, v.64, no.2 (Spring, 1984), pp.15-19.

Seifert, Edward H. Recruitment and Strategies for Small Schools. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Association of School Administrators (114th, New Orleans, LA. February 26-March 1, 1982).

Twentieth Century Fund. Making the Grade: Report of the Twentieth Century Fund Task Force on Federal Elementary and Secondary Education Policy. New York: Author. 1983.

U.S. House of Representatives, Committee on Education and Labor. Report of the Merit Pay Task Force. Washington, D.C: Government Printing Office. 1983.

Vander Zanden, James W. Human Development, 3rd ed. New York: Alfred A. Knopf. 1985.

Wisconsin State Department of Public Instruction. State Superintendent's Task Force on Teaching and Teacher Education. Final Report and Appendix. Bulletin No. 4250. Madison, Wisconsin. January, 1984.

Yankelovitch, Daniel. The new psychological contracts at work. Psychology Today, 11 (May, 1978), pp.46-50.